DOCUMENT RESUME

ED 258 960 SP 026 443

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TITLE Reconceptualizing Student Teaching Programs: A Synthesis.
PUB DATE Feb 85
NOTE 54p.; Paper presented at the Annual Meeting of the Association of Teacher Educators (Las Vegas, NV, February, 1985).
PUB TYPE Speeches/Conference Papers (150) -- Reports - Descriptive (141)

EDRS PRICE MF01/PC03 Plus Postage.
DESCRIPTORS *Action Research; Cooperating Teachers; Diaries; *Field Experience Programs; Higher Education; Preservice Teacher Education; Seminars; Student Teacher Supervisors; *Student Teaching; *Supervisory Methods; Teacher Student Relationship
IDENTIFIERS University Of Northern Iowa

ABSTRACT

The student teaching program at the University of Northern Iowa places priority on developing a preservice teacher's ability to become a reflective practitioner. As a required field experience for teacher education students, the program provides time for learning, experimentation, critical analysis, and practice. The second major construct on which the program rests is the mentor relationship fostered between the student teacher, university supervisor, and cooperating teacher. The program is organized into five curricular components. (1) The teaching component is the time when the student teacher is allowed to work on a full-time basis, under supervision, with students. (2) An action research component allows the student teacher to understand classrooms and schools; the relationship between them and the external factors that act upon them. (3) Seminars, linked to students' classroom experiences, broaden knowledge of teaching by encouraging reflection on practice. (4) Journals written by student teachers allow constant dialogue to take place between the student, supervisor, and cooperating teacher. (5) Supervisory conferences precede and follow formal observations of the cooperating teacher and the university supervisor. Each component is described in detail with emphasis upon what takes place in its arena and what purposes it fulfills. (JD)

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Reconceptualizing Student Teaching Programs: A Synthesis

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A paper presented at the annual meeting of the Association of Teacher Educators, Las Vegas, Nevada, February, 1985.

SP026443

Student Teaching Curriculum

for the

University of Northern Iowa

The student teaching program at the University of Northern Iowa places priority on developing a preservice teacher's ability to become a reflective practitioner. As a required field experience for teacher education students, the program provides a time for learning, experimentation, critical analysis, and practice. Elements of the master teacher-student mentor concept and the inquiry-oriented approach[1] combine to form the program orientation. Duri[illegible]he 1983 through 1985 academic years, the Department of Teaching and t[illegible]ffice of Student Field Experience faculty developed a statement of goals which specifies the qualities it seeks to promote in student teachers. Specifically, the program seeks to prepare teachers who are:

1) Aware of what professional practices are available and how knowledge of professional practice is developed.
2) Knowledgeable of ways to adapt curriculum, methods, and teacher behaviors that will improve instruction.
3) Knowledgeable and skilled in discipline and classroom management procedures.
4) Reflective about the ethical and moral consequences of teaching practices.
5) Analytical of the consequences of professional practices.
6) Knowledgeable of the social/political context of teaching.

7) Able to demonstrate readiness to independently assume the role and responsibilities of a professional practitioner.

There is a growing body of literature in teacher education (e.g., Giroux, 1980; Popkewitz, 1979; Zeichner & Tabachnick, 1981) that argues that the dominant forms of teacher education today encourage acquiescence and conformity to the status quo in school practices. This same general process is evident in those vehicles that primarily serve to socialize novices to the profession - field experiences and student teaching. Critics of the present conceptualizations of field experiences (e.g., Lortie, 1975; Salzello & Van Fleet, 1977; Schoenrock, 1980) similarly argue that these program components serve to socialize preservice teachers into existing school practices without focused opportunities to examine how and why schools operate as they do or to understand the social and cultural contexts in which their practices are embedded. Equally distressing, some research suggests that field experiences, as presently conceived, promote preservice teachers' attitudes which are less-than-favorable toward children, teaching and schools (Alper & Retish, 1972; Disposto, 1980).

The conceptualization from which much of our teacher education practices derive is the traditional-craft/apprenticeship model, which views teaching as a craft and teachers are craftspersons or artisans. The traditional approach to achieving high levels of skill as a craftsperson is through an apprenticeship in which the novice (student teacher) works under the tutelage of the master craftsman (teacher).

According to the model, knowledge about effective instruction is derived by on-the-job experience that is guided by the knowledge and wisdom of the experienced practitioner. Through the successive field experiences that students pass, it is believed that not only will they learn the many

technical skills required of teachers but also the rule structures that help orchestrate them in practice. The central problem with this view of teacher development is that it promotes an uncritical acceptance of school practices and views the novice as a passive recipient of the conventional wisdom (as possessed by the master teacher) of schools and the craftspersons who practice within them.

A second set of problems derive from the idea that the technical skills of teaching and the attendant judgments are largely tacit and that the central problem of teacher education is to "...bring to focal awareness the subsidiary knowledge that constitutes good practice." (Zeichner, 1983; p. 5). While many teacher educators are reluctant to identify their programs as apprenticeship in nature, there is substartial evidence that this model is in fact the most commonly found in preparation programs in the United States today. This model has clearly been an influence on the University of Northern Iowa student teaching programs over the last decade and perhaps before.

According to Zeichner and Teitelbaum (1982):

> One alternative to an [a personalized] apprenticeship approach to instruction during student teaching is to construct the experience with an emphasis on fostering inquiry about teaching and about the contexts in which teaching is embedded. This focus on developing the orientations and skills that are the constitutive elements of an inquiry-oriented approach to teaching does not imply that technical skill in teaching is somehow unimportant. On the contrary, the assumption underlying this approach to teacher education is that technical proficiency in teaching is to be highly valued, but only for its ability to bring about desired ends, not as an end in itself. There is a long history in teacher education of efforts to promote the development of inquiry-oriented teacher education. Conceptualizations have been developed and programs have been implemented that have had as their central aim the development of 'habits of inquiry'. For example, there have been proposals for the development of 'teacher innovators' (Joyce, 1972), 'students of teaching' (Strickler, 1966), 'teacher scholars' (Stratemeyer, 1956), 'teachers as inquires' (Bagenstos, 1975), 'teachers as problem solvers' (Joyce and Harrotunian, 1964) 'teachers as action researchers' (Corey, 1953),'teachers as participant observers' (Salzillo and Van Fleet, 1977), and 'self-monitoring

> teachers' (Elliott, 1976-77). Although these proposals differ in their definition of specific methods of inquiry, they all represent attempts to prepare teachers who not only have the skills to do, but also the skills to analyze what they are doing, and the habit of mind to do so (p. 102).

Those characteristics that differentiate the particular approach to inquiry-oriented experiences at the University of Northern Iowa are addressed below and draw on the theoretical works of Dewey (1933); Zeichner (1980, 81, 83), Van Manen (1977), and Schon (1983).

THEORETICAL BACKGROUND

Consistent with the goals cited earlier, the student teaching program places priority on developing student teachers' capacities for reflective action. Dewey (1933) made an important destinction between the routine action and reflective action of teachers. Routine action is guided by impulse, tradition and authority. For example, in many school settings, the day-to-day school practices are highly routinized (e.g. the goals, problems and methods of solving problems) and are dealt with in a prescribed way. Routine action is a major influence on instructional practices; many of which seem to have not significantly changed in over a century (Moore & Moore, 1984). Similarly, teachers continue to use activities rather than objectives as the basis for instructional planning (Yinger, 1980). In classrooms, the textbook remains the dominant source of instructional content and sequence. Lectures and demonstrations are the primary instructional delivery techniques (Ratekin, Simpson, Alverman, & Dishner, in press). To the extent that everyday practices, such as those mentioned here, continue in prescribed ways without major interruption, schooling practices are typically viewed as unproblematic and not warranting examination and possible change. Since this view is only one of many

alternative viewpoints, but considered to be an end within itself, it becomes a barrier to the possibility of considering alternatives.

Dewey argued that teachers who practice from the viewpoint of routine action uncritically accept the defined practices of schools and set about to find the most efficient and effective way to carry out these practices, while overlooking the fact that other options - some perhaps more desireable - exist and are available to them. For example, studies suggest that many teachers do not plan by using an objective driven model or decision making model. Instead, many plan in terms of the kind and amount of material that must be covered and the identification of activities that will promote the content (Clark and Yinger, 1980). When teachers do use goals or objectives, they most often use district objectives that are provided for each curricular area as a guide or framework for selecting activities (Yinger, 1980; Zahorik, 1975). An additional planning scheme that many teachers use is "textbook teaching" (Smith and Geoffrey, 1968) which relinquishes many decisions of content and time to the sequence provided in a set of published materials. Routine actions, such as these common planning practices, are typically not seen as problematic, and thus possible alternative solutions to planning lessons frequently remain unexplored.

Conversely, Dewey defines reflective action as behavior which involves active, persistent, and careful consideration of any belief or practice in light of the grounds that support it and the further consequences to which it leads. Reflective action involves meeting and responding to problems. Reflective teachers actively analyze their teaching and the educational, social, and political contexts in which their teaching is embedded. For example, a reflective teacher would view traditional planning practices as variable and thus problematic and would explore alternative methods

involving teacher made decisions about general content and teacher written objectives for specific instruction.

There are three attitudes that Dewey defined as prerequisite to reflective action: 1) openmindedness, 2) responsibility, and 3) wholeheartedness.

First, openmindedness refers to an active desire to consider more than one perspective, to give full attention to alternate possibilities, and to recognize the possibility of error even in the beliefs that are dearest to us. Student teachers, and beginning teachers, have been shown to readily accept the teaching practices that are already in use in their classrooms and schools (Ryan, et.al., 1980; Zeichner, 1979; Lasley, 1980). To be open-minded implies that alternate solutions to existing practices can and probably should be explored. When differences in beliefs and values arise, teachers must reevaluate the worth of the teaching strategy in relation to the particular group of students, desired outcomes attained and the consequences born. Reflective teaching means that teachers hold attitudes that are characterized by openmindedness about the content, methods and procedures used in the classroom and will critically analyze traditional practices (Apple and King, 1977).

Second, an attitude of responsibility involves careful consideration of the consequences to which an action leads. Responsibility requires that teachers ask themselves why they are doing what they are doing in the classroom in a way that transcends questions of immediate utility and in light of educational purposes of which they are aware. Teachers make moral choices when they make content and curricular decisions. The decisions result in certain consequences. The action may be observed as teachers

choose curriculum and instructional materials. The research of Apple and King (1977) reveals this process in the following example:

> As part of their initiation into the kindergarten community, young children also receive their first initiation into the social dimension of the world of work. The content of specific lessons is relatively less important than the experience of being a worker. Personal attributes of obedience, enthusiasm, adaptability, and perseverance are more highly valued than academic competence. Unquestioning acceptance of authority and of the vicissitudes of life in institutional settings are among a kindergartener's first lessons. It is in the progressive acceptance, as natural, as the world "tout court," of meanings of important and unimportant knowledge, of work and play, of morality and deviance, that these lesson reside (p. 353).

Instructional material may also be chosen for reasons of immediate utility. That is, it may be more convenient to use one book for study rather than a variety of sources. The consequence of this action may not only lead to an unrealistic view of world culture but also a limited awareness of different points of view. Teachers have the obligation to consider the consequences of their decisions in relation to the lives of the students they teach. Reflective teaching, according to Dewey, means that teachers hold responsible attitudes. Ones that require actions based upon clearly defined and responsibly stated purposes and that teachers are aware of the consequences to which their actions lead.

Third, wholeheartedness implies that openmindedness and responsibility are central to the lives of reflective teachers and that they rigorously seek out, and assume responsibility for the education of their students. An attitude of wholeheartedness requires a dedicated and committed approach to teaching all students, not just the few and impels the teacher to learn about the uniqueness of each student so that optimal educational experiences is supplied each.

In addition to the dimensions of reflectivity as defined by Dewey, a distinction may be made between different "levels of reflection" based on the work of Max Van Manen (1977). Van Manen identifies three levels of reflection, the first of which is technical rationality. At this level, the major concern is with the efficient and effective application of educational knowledge for the purposes of attaining ends which are accepted as given. At this level neither the ends nor the institutional contexts of the classroom, school and community are treated as problematic, i.e., contribute to the nature of teaching. Teachers who practice at this level of reflectivity typically do not question the value of the scope of objectives adopted for a particular grade level, but instead, question what to do in order to implement the objectives. Questions such as which film strip to show or which reading materials to use would be asked.

The second level of reflectivity is practical rationality. At this level, the major concerns of teachers are based upon a conception of practical action where the problem is one of explicating and clarifying the assumptions and predispositions underlying practical affairs and in assessing the educational consequences to which an action leads. At this level every action is seen as linked to particular value commitments and the actor is disposed to consider the worth of competing educational goals or ends. A teacher who practices at this level of reflectivity would question the rationale of an established curriculum and would explore alternatives and consequences to that existing rationale and the objectives that derive from it.

The third and final level of reflection, according to Van Manen, is critical rationality. At this level, the focus is on incorporating consideration of moral and ethical criteria into the discourse about

practical action. At this level the central question becomes which educational goals, experiences and activities lead toward forms of life which are just and equitable. Here both the teaching and the contexts which surround the teaching are viewed as problematic. A teacher who practices at this level of reflectivity would examine the political and socio-economic issues surrounding their teaching and bring them to the attention of students.

The second major construct on which the program rest conceptually is mentor relationships fostered between the student teacher and the university faculty supervisor and the student teacher and the classroom practitioner. This program theme derives, in part, from the research literature on mentor-protege relationships (Gehrke, Kay, 1984), adult learning (Bova, Phillips, 1984), qualities of mentors (Levenson, 1978), and reflective conversations (Schon, 1983), and is enacted through carefully designed mentoring protocols between cooperating teachers and student teachers, supervising teachers and student teachers within the program components that follow. The opportunity to foster and sustain desired oucomes from mentor-protege relations, as noted above here, is made possible largely through the provisiion of: 1) full-time resident doctoral faculty supervisors; 2) carefully selected classroom practitioners; and 3) a graduate level training program for teachers taught by the supervision faculty.

PROGRAM DESCRIPTION

The student teaching program is organized into five curricular components: 1) Teaching, 2) Action Research, 3) Seminars, 4) Journals, and 5) Supervisory Conferences. A brief description of each component follows.

1. Teaching. The teaching component, the central element, of the program is the time when the student teacher is allowed to work on a full-time basis under supervision, with students in a classroom in a public, private, or laboratory school. Each student gradually assumes full responsibility for the instructional program. The student teacher is expected to assume responsibility for classroom management, plan and deliver lessons that fall within, or are parallel to, the curriculum of the classroom, use a variety of teaching strategies, provide for the individual needs of pupils in both planning and evaluation, and assume full responsibility in the classroom for a minimum of two academic weeks. Plans for instructional improvement draw from the remaining components.

2. Action Research. The action research component of student teaching is included so that the student may gain an understanding of classrooms and schools and the relationships between these educational elements and external factors that act upon them. The intent of this component is to have the classroom, school and community serve as a laboratory for study as well as an opportunity for practice. Action research projects vary with the developmental nature of the student teacher.

3. Seminars. Seminars are planned and facilitated by the university coordinator in each center. Seminars are linked to the students' experiences in classrooms, and are not solely for the purpose of building technological or methodological skills or as a discussion forum for solving instructional problems or relating classroom experiences. The seminar is designed to broaden the students' knowledge of teaching by encouraging reflection on practice through the consideration of educational alternatives and their consequences.

4. Journals. The journal is a written dialogue, which provides communication between the student teacher and the university coordinator.

The student teacher initiates the entries, and maintains them regularly. The recordings provide a means for critically analyzing classroom activities, intellectual and emotional reflections and attitudes, as well as questions concerning teaching, learning procedures and practices. This reflective record becomes a source of evaluation for past performances, a projection for change, innovation, and practice for the future.

5. Supervisory Conference/Cycle. Supervisory conferences may precede and follow formal observations of the classroom and university supervisor. Conferences, whether two or three-way are considered to provide an important learning opportunity for the student teacher. During conferencing, supervisors have the opportunity to raise issues which were introduced in seminars, as well as provide feedback about specific teaching practices. Supervisors compile narrative notes during observation periods. The notes may then be shared and discussed with both student teacher and supervising teacher for the purpose of promoting growth in relation to specific lessons and the student's general development.

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Footnote

[1]Many of the ideas in this document on inquiry oriented aspects of student teaching curriculum are based, in part, on the work of Kenneth Zeichner and Carl Grant, both at the University of Wisconsin - Madison. The written information and verbal exchanges they provided assisted us in further conceptualizing the UNI student teaching curriculum. We gratefully acknowledge their contributions.

TEACHING

The teaching component of the student teaching program is the focal point around which all other elements are organized and for which they exist. Specifically, the teaching component is designed to accomplish two broad goals. First, it affords students opportunities for developing, clarifying, and applying teaching skills, educational philosophies and beliefs that were acquired during the planned program of preparation at the university. In addition, students are assisted in integrating practices, based upon research findings (attached) that have known relationships to effective instruction, in their teaching.

Second, students develop skills and understandings of critical inquiry by reflecting on and revising their teaching from understandings derived from planned opportunities (conferences, seminars, journals, action research, and mentor experiences). Moving toward becoming a reflective practitioner, students learn processes for systematically improving their teaching and its relationship to the larger schooling process through regular and successive efforts at reflecting in and on their practices as professionals.

In order to accomplish the first goal, students are engaged in a variety of planned experiences, e.g., observation, planning, decision making, monitoring, structuring, managing of the classroom and student assessment. Perhaps most important, students are guided in seeking relationship between the many elements of instruction, learning and curriculum and the nature of professional practice as a heuristic device.

Observation is an integral part of the student teaching experience that continues throughout the student teaching term (Stratemeyer & Lindsay,

1968). The student teacher, with the assistance of the coordinator, supervising teacher, and school principal will observe teachers, classrooms, the school, neighborhood, and the children. Observation is focused primarily on the teaching-learning process; however is not limited solely to this aspect of schooling. Discussion of these observations among the members of the student teaching team (university coordinator, supervising teacher and student teacher) throughout the term facilitates reflection on the nature of the teaching act, aids the student teacher to begin working formally with children and enhances the student teacher's learning throughout the term.

Student teachers are responsible for making curriculum decisions (Careu, et al., 1979) and will prepare lessons to be taught with emphasis on the following: identifying content and objectives, selecting materials and strategies that provide for individual learning differences among children and determining appropriate measures of learning outcome. The student teacher will be encouraged to experiment with a variety of instructional strategies and approaches and use a variety of models for planning, teaching, and evaluating.

During the student teaching term, student teachers will be expected to evaluate the progress of the students with whom they are working in relation to such factors as subject matter, goals and objectives. UNI student teachers are to be responsible for full teaching and management of the classroom for a mininimum of two weeks. The members of the student teaching team will work throughout the term assisting the student teacher toward becoming an independent practitioner who is reflective about the act of teaching.

The second goal, more processual in nature than the first, requires that students employ the understanding about their teaching derived from other components of the prgoram (e.g., journals, conferences, seminars, action research, mentor relationships) in an effort to improve the quality of their teaching. In this sense the teaching experiences of these beginning teachers and their understanding of the experiences are guided by the attitudes of reflectivity that Dewey articulated.

In addition the past twenty tears of research on teaching has yielded ways in which teachers can positively influence learning. Factors have been identified which affect student behaviors, attitudes and achievement and seem largely due to teachers decision making. Based on the work of Berliner (1984), Gage (1984), and Baumann (1984) important teaching practices are listed. Each provides ways for student teachers to make choices as they develop and reflect upon teaching practices.

PREINSTRUCTION FACTORS[1]

Content

1. Teachers make the final content choices - if they, the instructors, don't like it, they do not teach it (Fisher).
2. The perceived effort to teach a subject matter area, the perceived difficulty of the subject matter area for students, and the teachers' personal feelings of enjoyment while teaching a subject matter area influence the teachers' choice of content (Schwille).
3. Teachers decisions about the importance of a particular subject dominate all other aspects of classroom life (Carew).
4. Content emphasis was among the determining factors accounting for the differences in student achievement levels (Husen).
5. The opportunity to learn a given subject was the most potent variable in accounting for student achievement in that area (Cooley).

Time Allocation Decisions

1. The time allocated to the instruction of a subject area is directly related to student achievement (Fisher; Denham).
2. The variability within each particular content area lends to differences in achievement (Berliner).

Pacing

Teachers treat ability groups differentially. High ability groups were paced faster (Shavelson).

Grouping

1. The "average" child showed some achievement gains when part of a mixed ability group over the anticipated gains if they had been grouped homogenously (Webb).
2. One-to-one instruction is the most effective (Pearson).
3. Traditional large or small group instruction is more effective than highly individualized instruction (Fisher; Kean; Stallings).
4. Students in homogenous groupings achieve higher scores than when they work independently on learning packets (Brophy).

Activity Structures

1. Different activity structures (large group recitation vs. small group or individualized instruction) caused differences in the behavior and attitudes of the participants (Bassert).

Goals and Objectives

When teachers have clearly formulated instructional objectives and when they can communicate them to students, learning is enhanced (Anderson; Emmer; Tikunoff).

DURING-INSTRUCTION FACTORS

Engaged Time

1. There is a strong correlation between time-on-task and achievement. The effect is less for high ability students than for those with lower ability (Rossmiller).
2. When students are academically engaged, they pay attention to and participate in the instructional task as opposed to the nonacademic aspects of transition times, talking, disciplining, etc. (Berliner; Fisher; Rosenshine).

Monitoring Success Rate

1. Almost errorless performance during learning tasks results in higher test performance and greater student satisfaction for younger students and for lower ability students. Confusion about what to do or lack of even a single important concept or skill will frustrate students' progress, and lead to management and instructional problems for teachers (Marliave).
2. The percentage of time that students spent in activities in which they had high error rates had a negative correlation with achievement (Fisher).
3. Effective teachers are those who enable their students to be regularly successful. A low success rate - regular failure - discourages or interferes with learning (Brophy; Fisher).

Academic Learning Time

The student who accrues a large amount of academic learning time benefits. Differences in the amount of academic learning time generally result in a wide variation of student achievement (Fisher).

Monitoring

1. The greater the number of substantive interactions that take place, the higher the likelihood of academic achievement (Fisher).
2. Monitoring is directly related to student achievement. It is the ability to check students' understanding, provide corrective feedback, reteach when necessary, and insure that assigned work is

completed. Teachers who monitor create more opportunities for learning by organizing themselves and their classrooms to enhance efficiency and minimize wasted time (Anderson; Brophy; Emmer).

Structuring

1. Teachers who were unclear about communicating goals and directions were less effective in promoting academic achievement (Tikunoff).
2. Success rates and attention were improved when teachers spent more time structuring the lesson and giving directions (Fisher).
3. Directions can be overdone to the point that they can take longer to give than the amount of time which is needed to complete the assignment (Hassenpflug).

Questioning

1. Lower level questions promote participation, establish a factual data base from which higher-order discussions can arise, and provide high success experiences for students. For lower socioeconomic students, high levels of lower-order questions correlate positively with achievement (Brophy).
2. Students in classes where higher-order questions are asked achieve considerable more than those without the benefit of higher-order questions (Redfield).
3. Student answers are of high quality if teachers increase the response time. Increased are appropriateness of response, confidence, variety, and cognitive level (Rowe).

CLIMATE

Communicating Academic Expectations

1. The expectations of teachers and administrators permeate a school and create a school climate, not just a classroom one. "What you expect is what you get" (Rutter).
2. When teachers believe that students can learn, they do learn. There is a confidence in the teachers' ability to teach and the students' ability to learn (Brookover; Brophy; McDonald; Rutter).

Work Environment

1. When evidence of order and focus are missing, achievement is lower (Fisher).
2. If there is a single factor which approaches the status of a necessary condition in effective programs, it is the force of an instructional leader (Gersten; Hoffman; Samuels; Venezky).

3. Effective classrooms have been found to be warm, cooperative, "convivial" environments. Teachers were in charge, and there was little tolerance for nonacademic activities, but those teachers also had a sense of humor, gave praise, and communicated to children a sincere feeling of caring (Berliner; Anderson, Brophy, Emmer).

Classroom Management

1. In classes where teachers had been taught management skills, students were markedly more on task, and showed less deviant behavior (Borg).
2. Management behavior linked to effective instruction includes thorough preparation by the teacher,. a brisk pace of instruction, minimal transition time, unambiguous rules and procedures, and an ability to prevent misbehavior (Anderson; Good).

POST-INSTRUCTIONAL FACTORS

Tests

1. If teachers, schools, and districts are ever to look effective, they must learn to use the tests that accurately reflect what they teach. The congruence between what is taught and what is tested must be high (Freeman).
2. There is a difference between a lack of knowledge and knowing the wrong knowledge (Brown).

Grades

Evidence is persuasive that grades do motivate students to learn more in a given subject area. The use of grades tied to objective performance appears to be related to increased achievement and positive student attitudes (Gage).

Feedback

Substantial use of corrective feedback is the academic areas, contingent praise for correct or proper behavior, and the use of students' ideas as a way of letting them know that their contributions are valid, all show positive relations to achievement and attitude (Gage).

RESEARCH AND THE PRACTICE OF CLASSROOM TEACHING

1. Check previous day's work - reteach when needed
2. Present new content or skills rapidly, but in small steps with detailed instructions
3. Drill and practice while giving feedback and corrections
4. Independent practice
5. Review weekly and monthly

(Good and Grouws).

Students or teachers trained in instructional methods achieve higher than students of teachers without special training (Gage; Anderson).

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Footnote

[1]Citations on pages 18-22 are contained in the above references.

ACTION RESEARCH

Research shows that student teachers tend to adopt the methods and styles of their supervising teachers and infrequently question the principles that underlie them. Dewey (1933) wrote in The Relation of Theory to Practice in Education that laboratory experiences should be designed to foster reflective inquiry into the methods of instruction and the purposes of education, and that they should enable the preservice teacher to become a more thoughtful and alert student of teaching.

To develop the "critical spirit" that Dewey referred to is consistent with the program goals. The action research program component will allow our students to become more knowledgeable of rationales underlying curriculum, teaching behaviors, classroom management and the social/political issues embedded in teaching. It will also give studentsthe opportunity to analyze the consequences of their own teaching practices.

In order to implement an action research project, student teachers must be able to design a plan for investigation, determine a specific strategy (so they can act) and analyze outcomes. It is believed emerging professionals who have experiences in these areas will be more able to generalize about the process of education and will be more willing to experiment with "new" teaching procedures in the future.

Action research projects will allow the classroom, school and community to serve as a laboratory for study as well as an opportunity for practice. Projects will focus on the application of solutions to immediate problems. They are on-the-job types of problem solving which educators can use to enhance the quality of their decisions and resultant actions. Through application, action research provides a more dependable and appropriate

means by which to understand and evaluate the educational process. A variety of methodologies may be used; however, due to the immediacy of the problem, results may not be generalized to groups other than those which were studied.

An example of action research based upon the broad definition provided follows and focuses on teacher behaviors through the process of review and reflection. Tinney (1983), a teacher education student, writes of an attempt to use an action research cycle during her student teaching. The cycle employed consisted of observing, reflecting, and acting. This cycle was repeated over a total of ten sessions. An example from the second and tenth cycles follow

SECOND SESSION

As a class we brainstormed some story ideas, then the children wrote on any topic they chose. I had hoped that this would allow for more individual and original stories and that they would be enthused to write more than one or two sentences.

REFLECTION

A number of issues arose from this session. The children were reluctant to think up story ideas, (I had many children coming up to me for help with what to write). Some children responded favourably to the freedom of writing topics.

The use of the two other teachers in the conference stage was helpful. The preps are finishing within ten minutes.

ACTION

Some children still need a stimulus to write and more direction. I decided to use a stimulus which may or may not be used by the children.

I need a lesson prepared for the preps when they finish illustrating and writing their stories.

.

.

.

TENTH SESSION

As for session nine.

Encourage the development of writing skills in the conference stage.

REFLECTION

The program is running as I hoped. The children have become much more comfortable with writing and are working successfully through the process of drafting, editing, re-writing and publishing their stories.

As illustrated, the merging of action research and practice in student teaching will give the young professional increased skills for critically analyzing their own teaching behaviors and practices thus allowing for the establishment of a desired learning climate.

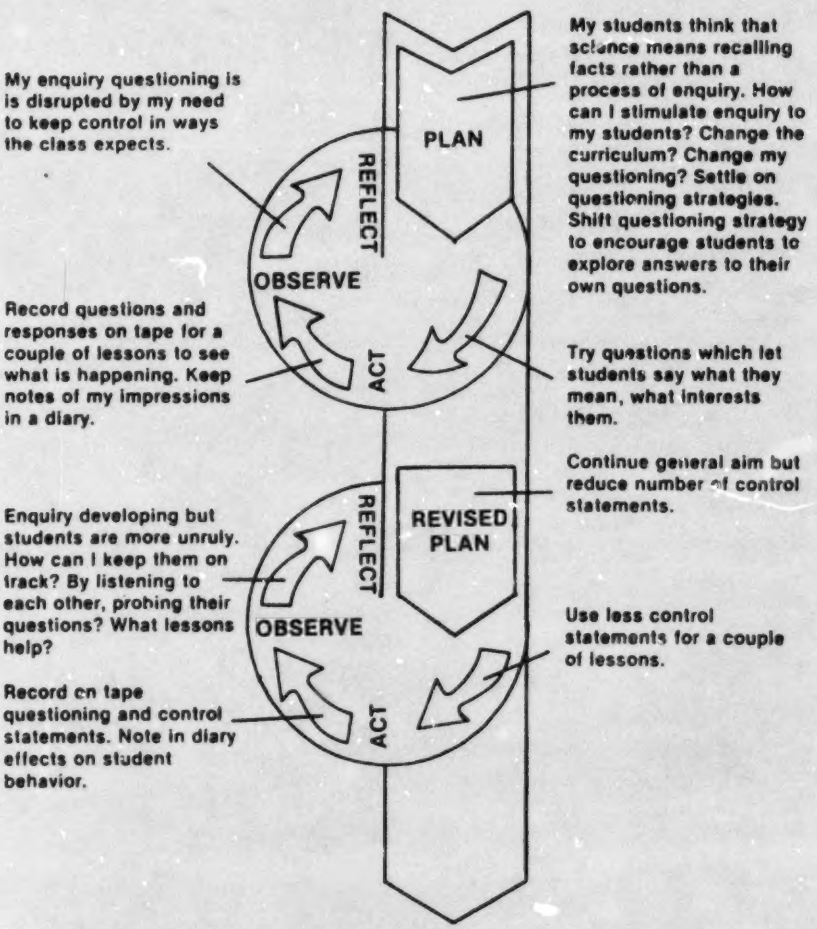
Perrodin (1959) wrote that change in behavior is most likely to result when teachers try to improve a situation that makes a difference to them. Because the nature of every student teacher's experience varies, each student teacher will be the one who initiates the action research to be investigated. The student teacher will collaborate with the university coordinator and the classroom supervisor as to suitable projects and possible methods. Collaboration is the strategy to be used in all student teacher centers to better insure that worthwhile investigations are being persued and that local issues and expertise are utilized.

To ensure some consistency the following general model for implementation is advocated and is based upon the work of Kemmis & McTaggart.(1982).

> Action research is a dynamic process in which these four aspects are to be understood not as static steps, complete in themselves, but rather as moments in the action research spiral of <u>planning</u>, <u>acting</u>, <u>observing</u> and <u>reflecting</u>. In the process, the aim is to bring together through mutual attraction, discourse and practice (in the one dimension) and construction and reconstruction (in the other), so that improvements in practice and in understanding can be made systematically, responsively and reflectively. The

improvement in understanding will appear at first as a better developed rationale for the practice. The rationale is developed by being tested in practice; each proposition in the rationale can be checked against practice and against other parts of the rationale. In the long term, these propositions will develop into a perspective on the practice and on education itself, becoming a critical theory which includes consideration of such matters as how students learn and how the message systems of the school (curriculum, school organization, teaching and learning activities, and assessment practices) create meanings for students.

An example follows which shows the cyclical relationship between the four elements (Kemmis & McTaggart; 1982).


My enquiry questioning is is disrupted by my need to keep control in ways the class expects.
PLAN
My students think that science means recalling facts rather than a process of enquiry. How can I stimulate enquiry to my students? Change the curriculum? Change my questioning? Settle on questioning strategies. Shift questioning strategy to encourage students to explore answers to their own questions.
REFLECT
OBSERVE
ACT
Record questions and responses on tape for a couple of lessons to see what is happening. Keep notes of my impressions in a diary.
Try questions which let students say what they mean, what interests them.
Continue general aim but reduce number of control statements.
REVISED PLAN
Enquiry developing but students are more unruly. How can I keep them on track? By listening to each other, probing their questions? What lessons help?
REFLECT
OBSERVE
Use less control statements for a couple of lessons.
Record on tape questioning and control statements. Note in diary effects on student behavior.
ACT

Every student teacher has the responsibility for conducting an action research project that includes these phases. At the completion of the investigation, each student teacher may act as a consultant to peer student teachers and share the findings at a seminar designed for action research projects and their subsequent contribution to the improvement of practice.

We anticipate that the action research projects done during student teaching will accomplish what Ross (1984) says action research is designed to accomplish, namely to ". . . help teachers develop critical reasoning about their practices and that teachers will better use existing research which will lessen the gap between research and daily practice." (p. 113)

The objectives of action research are designed to form one component of the student teaching curriculum. Only when action research is integrated with teaching experiences, the seminars, the journals and the conferences will its value to the whole become apparent and measurable.

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ACTION RESEARCH IDEAS

According to Kemmis & McTaggart (1982), it is important to,

> Avoid issues which you can do nothing about. Questions like the relationship between socio-economic status and achievement, between ability and tendency to ask questions in class may be interesting but they have tenuous links with action. Stick with issues in which you do something which has potential for improvement. Remember that strategic action is your way to improve practice and your understanding of apparent and real constraints on change.

EXAMPLES OF IDEAS LINKED TO ACTION

> Everyone talks about the enquiry method. My students seem to prefer working on problems to which answers are not yet well known. How can I shift the emphasis in my teaching to enquiry methods? How can I make my questioning more enquiry oriented?
>
> I have heard a lot about every teacher being a teacher of English and I try to encourage language development through my teaching. I wonder if getting students to tape record and transcribe their discussions will help to make them more sensitive to the language they use.
>
> From chatting with parents I can see that they are as dissatisfied with parent-teacher nights as the staff. What do both groups think can be done to imporve parent-teacher interview situations? How can this be realistically implemented?
>
> Students are dissatisfied with the methods by which they are assessed. How can we collaborate to improve student assessment?
>
> Students seem to waste a lot to time in class. How can I increase the time students spend 'on-task'?
>
> Parents are fairly keen to help the school with the supervision of students' homework. How can we make their help more productive?
>
> I talk to some of my students more than others. Who are they? What kinds of exchanges mark them out as different? Is it something about them or something about me? If I record the class discussion maybe I can change my pattern of interaction so that more students can participate in my lessons.

You will notice that each of the examples has two important characteristics; each begins with a recognition of what is presently happening as a basis for thinking about issues, and the

emphasis is on trying something out ... on doing; on developing strategic action as a variation of existing practice.

You should now try writing down four or five ideas which might be explored and acted upon in your situation. Try to link the idea, present practice, and strategic action which will lead to improvement. Write about thirty words for each.

Keep the issue relatively small. No matter what you do, it will have effects outside the one you intend. You can decide later how far you want the task to extend. Working outwards is easier than contracting an oversized project.

Your task now is to select one of these ideas to act upon. In choosing the area in which you prefer to work you must attend to the following criteria:

How important the issue is to you.

How important it is for your students. (p. 19)

ADDITIONAL IDEAS

Possible Issues for an Action Research Investigation

I. Inside the Classroom:

1. Observe and record examples of primary childrens' cognitive or psychosocial development according to Piaget or Ericksen.
2. How should math or reading activities used with Talented/Gifted children in my classroom differ from those used with other children?
3. Compare math and reading ITED scores to current progress in you classroom.
4. How can you effectively use the VCR or cassette recorder in your instructional program?
5. How can a child's normal curiosity be utilized in the classroom?
6. What are the effects of using only directed questions in the classroom?
7. How do the children view one another (eg., academically, personality, etc.?)
8. How do children communicate to a teacher that they know the answer and want to talk? Do not know the answer and do not want to be called on?
9. What kinds of grammar errors do children make and how can you reduce them?
10. Explore three motivational strategies.
11. Implement a specific management program like "Assertive Discipline."
12. Use "Mastery Teaching" techniques like set, checking for understanding or modeling as described by Madeline Hunter.

II. Outside the Classroom:

1. What is the organizational structure of special programs which are provided by the district?
2. What AEA personnel visit your building and what services do they provide?
3. How does an alternative high school function?
4. How does one become a substitute teacher and what are the advantages/disadvantages of taking this kind of a position?

5. What do Chapter I teachers do?

6. Do I have to accept a mainstreamed child into my classroom? How does the mainstreaming process work?

7. What is my role in a staffing? Others who attend staffings?

8. How do teachers of elective courses recruit students?

9. How are computers being used in this building? By teachers? By students?

10. What is in a Master Contract?

11. If I suspect child abuse, what are the procedures and laws I must follow?

12. Do a sociological study of the attendance area for your school.

13. How can a classroom teacher get involved in grant writing?

14. What teacher publications and professional organizations help teachers with instructional ideas and materials?

THE STUDENT TEACHING SEMINAR

University seminars that accompany student teaching, have been fairly common in the United States since World War II (Bigelow, 1946). Seminars, traditionally, have allowed students to explore relationships between practice and theory by providing a forum for discussing school practices and sharing common problems. Seminars have been a time when students back away from the classroom and reflect with their peer group on the happenings of the daily world of teaching. However in those settings, the focus has been largely on meeting the survival needs of students. It has been argued (Zeichner, 1980) that such seminars fail to "...address the role of student teaching in enhancing the developmental process and ignores our moral responsibilities as teacher educators" (p. 16). Zeichner (1980) further states that,

> There is such a thing as too much relevance. To argue that relevance is synonomous with virtue is just plain irresponsible. The dominant utilitarian emphasis in teacher education today fails to demonstrate that a focus on technique and the survival needs enhances the developmental process toward more ethical behavior. (p. 16)

We do not agree with the conventional wisdom that the best teacher education programs prepare school personnel to function with the least friction in schools. It is in fact the professional and moral responsibility of teacher educators to teach their students how to cope in the present in order to be able to affect changes in the future by going beyond an uncritical acceptance of the normative ideologies of schools upon which many schools rest. Thus it is not enough to use the student teaching seminars only for immediate problem solving. One vehicle for facilitating such critical examinations is the seminar.

The seminar, as proposed here, is specifically a time for exploring, discovering and creating the "new." Seminars are meetings where students

can interact in an environment that is conducive to creative problem solving, relating educational knowledge to practice, developing insight into ones' professional self and teaching experiences and thus growing personally and professionally (Combs, Blume, Newman and Wass, 1978; Perman, 1979; Sarason, Davidson and Blatt, 1962; Zeichner, 1980).

Seminars are planned and directed by the University Coordinator/Clinical Professor. The seminar is one of the five program components that all student teachers encounter, and the principles underlying the seminars are similar from center to center. However, the activities of the seminar, like a university class, do vary from professor to professor. The seminar content typically reflects the needs and experiences of each group of student teachers and is designed to meet growth and development patterns. The content also varies, but includes both essential (1-6) and desired topics or themes (7-14).

Among the elements or themes which should form the essential core of the seminar are the following:

(1) helping students to take a critical approach in the examination of an educational issue or classroom problem;

(2) helping students see beyond the paradigms which circumscribe conventional thought about classroom practice;

(3) helping students to develop a sense of the history of their own particular classroom and to examine the rationales underlying classroom and school regularities;

(4) helping students examine their own assumptions and ideas and how these effect their classroom practice;

(5) helping students critically examine the processes of their own socialization as teachers;

(6) requiring student to use the skills of inquiry;

(7) analyzing teacher/learner behaviors;

(8) evaluating teaching methodologies;

(9) discussing research findings;

(10) discussing current concerns/issues in the teaching profession;

(11) discussing instructional practices with an emphasis on exploring alternatives;

(12) presenting and discussing professional ethics;

(13) assisting with professional tasks (e.g., job hunting skills, completing survey, research, institutional requirements, etc.); and

(14) reading assigned articles from texts, handouts, and journals.

The organization and format of seminars are not prescribed but flexibly built around the following guidelines:

1. Planned and directed by the university coordinator/clinical professor.
2. Content that meets the needs of each group of students.
3. Appropriate use of outside personnel.
4. Approximately one seminar meeting per week.
5. Approximate length of seminars is two (2) contact hours.
6. Scheduled times may vary from after school (4:00 p.m. to 6:00 p.m.) to selected school time (i.e., 1:30 p.m. to 3:30 p.m.). Some seminars may be scheduled for extended periods of time such as one-half and whole day in-services.

Within this organizational plan, the seminar is a place of reflection for students and faculty and provides opportunities for both to challenge and explore ideas that they encounter. It has been pointed out that if student teachers can be shown that they must not necessarily accept the dominant technocratic rationality of the schools in order to survive, then

they will be much better equipped to resist the more powerful regressive forces that they will most certainly face in service (Zeichner, 1980). Thus the seminar can fill this latter role if it is viewed as being an integral part of student teaching and not an addition to it.

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BEST COPY

JOURNALS

Through the years teacher-scholars have used the daily journal to facilitate intellectual processing, link the events of yesterday to today, annotate critical student behaviors, and aid in conceptualizing classroom functions. The journal serves a major role in facilitating the professional goals of the student teaching program, particularly a belief system inspiring reflective action. The journal format is not limited to one pattern. University coordinators and their students agree upon the format best suited to their common objectives and needs. While format is diverse, the purpose for the journal, and entry topics are common to all. The global objective is to encourage preservice teachers to engage in reflective inquiry regarding current classroom programs, practices, and school policies, among others. Therefore, journal topics address the prevalent components of an educational environment. These can be catagorized in many ways, for example: teaching techniques, curriculum design, professional growth and development, community involvement/influences, and organizational behavior. Students in this preservice program are encouraged, through the process of reflective inquiry, to observe, analyze, evaluate, and understand the patterns and practices of their classroom and school environment. In addition to classroom observations, students are encouraged to examine the research literature and reflect thoughtfully concerning current ideas and finding for professional development.

Journals aid in the development and refinement of reflective inquiry skills in three ways. The entries become a framework for reflection. Through the use of questioning strategies the student is able to express in

writing a reflective analysis and evaluation of critical events. Second, the journal entries become the supporting fulcrum that gives rise to topics of concern in seminar discussions, action research projects, and individual conferences. In addition, journals serve as mechanisms for analyzing and recording the ideas and events of the seminars, conferences, and readings. Finally, the journal becomes a schematic record of the preservice teacher's personal growth and development. It enables them to trace the changes in their thinking from concerns about routine behavior to reflective practice. Keeping a journal compels students to identify and respond to problems. Written and verbal responses aid in shaping their beliefs about the social, political, and moral contexts of education. Ultimately this interaction contributes to the foundation for reflective action.

As described earlier, preservice-teacher responses to critical classroom/school events may be assessed on the three levels of reflectivity outlined by Max Van Manen. First the student operates and responds at a technical level. At this level, entries typically center around classroom management strategies, selection of instructional materials and techniques. Major concerns regarding curriculum, management, and teaching techniques are questioned at a level of teacher performance rather than the merit of student learning. Emphasis is placed on "what is being done and how" rather than questioning "why". Through reflective writing, discussion and guidance, the ideas underlying responses may be gradually changed from technical proficiency to a higher plane of understanding. The beginning teacher at this level begins to ask "why" and demonstrates some awareness that routine practices are not always achieving optimal educational ends. At this level the focus is not on technical performance as much as it is on practice and problem identification. Finally, the preservice teacher's

reflective comments begin to focus on an awareness of needed changes, a measure of responsibility to initiate change, and an understanding of the need to focus ones' time and effort to achieve constructive changes.

Attached are three model formats focusing on readings and seminars (A), on teaching and school events (B & C). Also included are sample student entries that illustrate ideas underlying the purpose of the journal.

JOURNAL FORMAT A

Suggestions for Entries

Below are listed some ideas and questions about the kinds of things you may find useful to think about as you compile your journal of "reactions and reflections".

A. Analysis of and reactions to Readings

Some Pertinent Questions for Exploring a Reading

1. Do you understand it? In your opinion:

   a. Specifically, what is the author trying to say? (include pages and quotes so that you can locate and refer to it easily).

   b. Specifically, what important arguments, ideas, distinctions, definitions, problems, or propositions are posed and/or dealt with by the author? (note quotes, pages, paragraphs for easy reference).

   c. What major assumptions do you think the author is working from?

   d. What areas of doubt or uncertainty do you have about it? (be specific—list questions you would like answered)

2. How would you interpret it? In your opinion:

   a. What important problem(s) did the author solve or not solve? Did he know it?

   b. What significance has it for you? For teachers? For others?

   c. What implications are there for further and future use?

3. What agreements and/or criticisms do you have of it?

   Can you show where the author is:

   a. uninformed?
   b. misinformed? — These are criteria for disagreement!
   c. illogical?
   d. incomplete? — This criterion would allow for suspension of judgment.

   Otherwise you must agree. In what important ways would you agree with the author?

B. Specific Personal Reactions and learnings from Seminars

Some Questions For Exploring your Personal Reactions

1. How satisfied am I with the way seminar is working? What important ideas have been generated? What do I like best about the seminar? Least? Why?

2. Can I locate a critical event in the seminar today—an event which changed the goal of the group, influences other people, influenced me, facilitated or inhibited the learning of the group or me? What learning was most effective today?

3. Who do I understand well or poorly in the group? Why?

4. Were there things today which I wanted the group to do? Why didn't I suggest these things, or why weren't my suggestions picked up? How do I feel about suggestions I made which were picked up?

5. What kind of role am I playing in the group? What kinds of roles are others playing in the group? What roles are needed that are not being played?

6. What am I trying to do in the group? What are my purposes, goals, intentions?

7. What assumptions am I making about myself, others, and the group as a whole?

8. What areas of disagreement are apparent? What might be done about them?

9. What changes should be made? Who should make which ones?

10. How satisfied are you with the role being played by the instructor? What might s/he do to be more effective?

The foregoing suggestions are intended to be illustrations of the kinds of things which you may find useful in keeping a journal. Some of them may be pertinent and important to you at one time and not at another. In addition, you may think of other things which you feel are more appropriate for the kinds of learning needs you have. It is important to think of the journal as an opportunity—an opportunity to clarify your own thinking and feeling, to maintain continuity in your experience, and to communicate with the coordinator.

JOURNAL FORMAT B

Your journal is intended to help you accomplish two interrelated goals. One is to better understand yourself as a teacher. Yinger (1981) informs us that, "Writing, particularly journal writing, with its focus on personal throughts, feelings and reflections, putws writers in a position to learn at least four important things about themselves: 1) what they know, 2) what they feel, 3) what they do (and how they do it) and, 4) why they do it. Through such journal writing you will be better able to understand and clarify your emerging teaching style.

The second goal is to help you reflect upon and critically evaluate numerous issues related to teaching. Dewey (1931) states that reflective action entails "active, persistent and careful consideration of any belief or supposed form of knowledge in lights of the grounds that support it and the further consequences to which it leads". As teachers we must continuously reflect upon numerous issues. Some of them are:

1. How do I determine what knowledge/content to communicate to students?

2. In what ways do I incorporate my understanding of learning theories and motivation into the classroom setting?

3. What teaching techniques are most effective with my classes? Why?

4. How do I go about planning curriculum?

5. In what ways do I foster students' personal development?

6. What are the goals of this community and how do they relate to the school?

7. What impact does what I'm teaching have on my students, both now and in their future?

8. What impact does the physical environment of my room (and of the school) have on my teaching style and students' learning?

9. Do I understand how students are grouped for instruction, why it is done this way and how grouping affects children?

10. Am I aware of how curricular goals for the district are determined?

Through responding to these, and any other relevant questions, concerns or issues that came to your attention, you will further expand your knowledge of yourself as a teacher and of many issues important to your profession.

Each week make a journal entry that helps you to reflect upon and analyze your experiences during the past week. It is anticipated that each entry will take approximately one hour. I will collect your journals each week, respond to them in writing and return them to you the following week. Please use a loose leaf notebook and write in ink pen.

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JOURNAL FORMAT C

LESSON REFLECTION

THE PLAN

1. Describe the part(s) of your lesson plan that helped you most in your teaching of the lesson.

2. Describe the part(s) of your lesson plan that gave you the most difficulty while teaching the lesson.

3. What is your greatest strength in lesson planning?

4. What is your greatest weakness in lesson planning?

5. What did you do to master the lesson content well enough to teach the lesson?

6. What did you do to generate ideas about how-to-teach this lesson content?

7. Now that you have planned and taught the elsson, what changes would you have made in the plan?

THE TEACHER

1. What did you like about your over-all teaching behavior during the lesson?

2. What specific teaching behaviors did you use that contributed most to your success in teaching the lesson?

3. What are the greatest strengths of your teaching behaviors?

4. What are the greatest weaknesses of your teaching behaviors

5. What teaching behaviors did you use that contributed to the success of the learners?

6. What could you have done differently that would have increase learning?

7. What curricular responsibilities did you fulfill by teaching this lesson?

8. What things did you need to do to make this lesson fit into the ongoing activities of the class?

THE LEARNER

1. What learner behaviors contributed most to the success of the lesson?

2. What did you want the leraners to do that they did not do? Why?

3. What advice do you think the learners would give you about this lesson?

4. What teacher behaviors (planned and unplanned) did you use? What did the learners do as a result of each of these behaviors?

5. What were the learners responses to the lesson content?

6. What things in the environment affected student beahvior?

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The Supervisory Conference/Cycle

The supervisory conference/cycle is an additional program component designed to facilitate reflection in and on professional practice. During a supervisory conference, student teachers are encouraged to reflect upon classroom practice and about the classroom, school and community within which they work. The supervisory conference/cycle draws from the work of Dewey (1933) to provide the conceptualization for reflection, from Van Manen (1977) to promote levels of reflective thinking, and from Goldhammer (1969) to provide a framework for the supervisory cycle. It is assumed that the supervisory team, consisting of the student, the cooperating teacher, and the university coordinator will share roles in the process described below which may by varied to meet specific needs and situations in the various centers.

The purpose of the supervisory conference/cycle is to promote the student teachers' growth and development through the critical analysis of teaching practices in a manner consistent with the goals of the program. Specific areas for analysis might include an examination of 1) pedagogical intentions and the relationship between the intentions and observable classroom behaviors, 2) content and teaching methods and their justification in light of effective teaching practices as determined by research, 3) unanticipated outcomes and their relationship to a "hidden curriculum", 4) the institutional and societal contexts which undergird instructional decisions and practices and their relationship to a larger universe of possibilities. The framework for such analysis, as described above, may be accomplished through appropriate modifications of the clinical supervision

model, which serves, broadly, as the base for the supervisory component of the program.

The appropriate conferencing format will be based upon and adapted to the individual needs/goals of each student teacher; therefore, any of the following components may be used: 1) preconference, 2) observation, 3) post-observation analysis, 4) post-observation conference, or 5) assessment of professional growth. Examples of areas for critical analysis within the model format follow.

1. Preconference
    - A. Learning Outcomes
    - B. Presentation Methods
    - C. Instructional Materials
    - D. Special Learner Considerations
2. Observation Focus and Method
    - A. Determine Focus Cooperatively
        1. Refer to student teacher's goals
        2. Refer to student teacher's self-evaluation
    - B. Determine Method
        1. Script writing
        2. Interaction analysis
        3. Video-taping
        4. Audio-taping
3. Post Observation Analysis
    - A. Analysis of Observation Information
    - B. Formulate Guidance for Reflection
    - C. Determine Conference Strategy

4. Post Observation Conference

    A. Supervisor guides student teacher through reflective action

        1. Examine intentions
        2. Examine teacher behaviors
        3. Examine student behaviors
        4. Examine unanticipated events or learning
        5. Examine consequences of lesson presentation
        6. Examine lesson in relation to alternative possibilities
        7. Examine lesson in relation to universal influences

5. Assessment of Professional Growth and Development

    A. Assess Individual Goal Attainment

    B. Select New Goals

    C. Identify a Course of Action

Throughout the supervisory conference cycle the supervisor guides the reflective process by relating, to the extent possible and relevant, to topics that were addressed in seminars, to issues that were raised in journal entries, to action research projects and to the individual goals of each student teacher. The overall strategy is intended to help student teachers think critically about their teaching practices, their experiences in school and the broader context within which schools function. It is hoped that through guided reflection the student teacher will be more open to the possibilities that exist beyond the ideas, within their present classroom settings. The conferencing component is viewed as being developmental in nature, thus encouraging expanded sophistication in both conceptualizing and enacting teaching; the end result of which is improved instructional practice.

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